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ABSTRACT

This issue begins with a description (by Henri Niedzielski) of 10 performance objectives devised for a course in French phonetics at the University of Hawaii. The other articles in this issue are concerned with the following topics: (1) a self-instruction approach that allows colleges to offer courses in nearly every language to as few as two students (Leslie Rich); (2) the integration of language laboratories with classwork (Bjorn Lusensky), (3) the comparison of cognitive drills with habit drills in language learning (A. Keuleers), and (4) the position of the overhead projector in the language laboratory (in German, Gottfried Keller). In addition, brief descriptions are given of work in progress at some English universities. An index to volume 1, nos. 1, 2, and 3, is also provided. (LG)

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Educational Technology
and Language Learning Systems

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Henri Niedzielski

Some Performance Objectives for a Course in French Phonetics at the University of Hawaii

The ideal goal of a course in French phonetics is to develop the techniques and skills for the mastery of the spoken language. Not every student can imitate so perfectly that he can reproduce the speech he hears with complete accuracy, without reference to any further analysis of its phonetic features. Therefore the student of French phonetics must study the individual speech sounds of the French language and the modifications they undergo in connected discourse.

The teaching technique that can best ameliorate the problem of acquiring a "good" pronunciation is a program of specific objectives, chosen and defined for the benefit of the student in the genuine mastery of spoken French. Imagine the "Mastery of Spoken French" as the ultimate objective, located somewhere near the horizon. In order to reach it, the student can follow either a sinuous path, the traditional approach of pure imitation, or a straight path on which the final objective is never obstructed. At all times the student knows how far he still has to go because the distance is indicated periodically by visible and reachable posts.

When the student realizes he can plot his progress by completing goals, he is encouraged and becomes an interested, active and more efficient learner. At the University of Hawaii in the Spring semester, 1972, French 301 - Phonetics, teachers and students had as general goals the improvement 1) of listening to the spoken language 2) of pronunciation and intonation 3) in reading aloud in French prose and 4) in transcribing the oral word.

At the beginning of the semester, mistakes in the student's pronunciation were pointed out to him by the instructor, and were corrected by the student through intensive laboratory practice outside of class. Class time was spent discussing problems the students encountered in their laboratory practice and reexplanation of pronunciation rules that may have been misunderstood. The student was encouraged to make appointments with the instructor to discuss his individual difficulties and improvement.

Some specific objectives were that the students, by the end of the course, be able:

1) to identify and vocalize the various elements of the French sound system;

2) to read phonetic transcriptions;

3) using the International Phonetic Alphabet, to transcribe accurately and systematically the French words and groups of words he hears;

4) to understand a text presented by the instructor through taped or oral dictation;

   a. after having seen the printed text,

   b. without having seen the printed text,

5) to listen to and comprehend a text presented by other native speakers of French;

   a. after having seen the printed text,

   b. without having seen the printed text,

6) to transcribe a text phonetically;

7) to repeat the contents of a given phrase limited by two breath pauses;

8) to read a text in French prose aloud respecting all phonemic features;

9) to write down the contents of a breath group pronounced without repetition;

10) to take dictation.

The purpose of objective one - identifying and vocalizing the sound system of French - is to teach the student to clearly discriminate between the thirty-seven phonemes of the French language by studying and practicing each one individually. Because each stage is limited to a small number of clearly recognizable features, the characteristics of which are each time accurately defined and illustrated, imitation is directed along the lines most likely to lead to effective reproduction of the sounds heard. Each of the twenty lessons in Part One of Basic French (1) stresses an individual sound or group of sounds sharing the same phonetic features. The student is required to:

a. associate the phonetic symbol (of the International Phonetic Association's alphabet) with its sound equivalent,

b. recognize correct French pronunciation and to reject incorrect pronunciation of the same sound,

c. pronounce the words or sounds to which he has been listening,

d. recognize his own pronunciation mistakes and know how to go about correcting them when listening to his own voice recorded on tape,

e. associate the appropriate letter combinations to his pronunciation.

The knowledge acquired in objective two, reading phonetic transcriptions, is passive. It chiefly prepares the student for the more active phase of

phonetic transcription. Its benefits are obvious. For instance, it allows the student to look up the pronunciation of doubtful words in a dictionary. Less time needs to be spent on listening to and imitating words, in order to recall their pronunciation, since the student can call upon this one to one visual representation.

Objective three - trancribing an orally presented text - teaches the student to record accurately and systematically the sounds of the spoken language. Unlike in English, where one can usually determine where one word ends and the next one begins, single words in connected French discourse lose their individuality. Each sentence sounds more or less like one long word, composed of many syllables. Since the words are "fused" together, it is next to impossible for the beginning student to separate them as is demanded in French orthography. Frustration often sets in and the student does not "hear" what is being said.

The principle of Phonetic transcription is that of breaking the language down into its smallest linguistically meaningful units of sound and of assigning a different phonetic symbol to each sound. After the student has learned the alphabet of the International Phonetic Association, which closely corresponds to the sound units of French, there is no "spelling" problem. Each sound is always represented by the same symbol thus allowing the student to record quickly and unambiguously what he hears, including such phenomena as elision, linking and assimilation, which play a marked part in spoken French.

In order to achieve this objective the student must learn to listen with care and discrimination. Once he has learned to listen, to break sentences down into sounds and to build sounds into words, the largest obstacle to comprehending spoken French has been crossed.

The fourth above stated objective is understanding a text presented by the instructor through taped or oral dictation. This exercise should not be difficult if the vocabulary is familiar to the student, and the passage is articulated with precision at a moderate pace. It is suggested that the student:

a. listen to the tape in its entirety,

b. analyze the situation described in the passage, and discover how many actors are performing what actions and under what circumstances,

c. write down each sentence as it is heard, breath group after breath group, using phonetic transcription for the sound of words not semantically understood,

d. read the sentence aloud, checking for meaning by keeping the topic of the passage in mind,

e. eliminate words that do not fit meaningfully in the context of the sentence, replacing them with words that have similar pronunciations,

f. use Prononciation du Francais Standard (2) and a good dictionary to find appropriate letter combinations to replace phonetic transcription,

g. verify subject verb agreement and other morpho-syntactic agreements.

On completing this objective the student should be able to write a short English summary of the passage and answer orally presented true-false questions concerning the contents of the text.

Listening to and comprehending a text presented by other native speakers of French, objective five, is felt to be a more difficult exercise than understanding the text presented by the instructor, but not beyond the student's abilities at this time because he already is familiar with the phenomena of elision, linking, assimilation, and intonation and is able to record in a written form what he hears (phonetic transcription). Perhaps the biggest problem for the student will be connected with the rapidity of the speech. The student can best deal with this problem by dotting a blank sheet of paper upon hearing each syllable in a given phrase so that the student records the occurrence of each sound, and then by following the steps outlined in objective four.

This exercise gives the student practical experience in listening to various native speakers of French in preparation for his understanding of French radio broadcasts, and lectures.

In objective six, the student learns to transcribe a text from its graphic representation (which represents a pronunciation dating from the 12th century) into its phonetic symbols. For example, if the student wanted to know the correct pronunciation of the word "mettaient", he might take the following steps:

a. look up the sound value of the "e" and the "ai" in Prononciation du Francais Standard (2), and find they are equivalent to the phonetic symbol /ɛ/.

b. find that the final "-ent", being a verb ending, is silent.

c. examine the sound values of the consonants "m" and "t", and find them to be counterparts of the English "m" and "t".

Hence he would pronounce "mettaient" as is indicated by the phonetic notation /METɛ/ which is the correct pronunciation. Intensive study of the charts in Prononciation du Francais Standard (2) will eventually permit the student to memorize the pronunciation of the various letter combinations in preparation for reading the printed word.

Objective seven - repeating the contents of a given phrase, limited by two breath pauses - teaches the student to imitate the correct pronunciation, liaison, and intonation factors of the spoken French sentence. The student is required to listen to the phrase, interpret its meaning and reproduce it orally respecting all its phonemic features.

Objective eight teaches the English speaking student a relatively simple method of preparing a French prose text to be read aloud. This consists of:

a. determining the significance of the text and deciding the tone in which it should be read,

b. determining the preferable breath groups,

c. indicating with arrows the general intonations,

d. indicating the obligatory and the prohibited liaisons,

e. underlining the mute e's which must be pronounced, crossing out those which should not be pronounced,

f. recognizing and understanding the process of linking,

g. marking down the new sounds of the phonemes undergoing assimilation because of the linking after the fall of the e's

h. stressing the semi-vowels which are syllabic.

This type of exercise trains the student to read aloud reports or lectures in French on any subject. Moreover, it is excellent for maintaining or even improving the speaking skill.

Objective nine teaches the student to write down the contents of a given phrase, limited by two breath pauses. The student is therefore required to listen attentively to the phrase, interpret its meaning and write it down in French orthography. This exercise teaches the student to take notes in preparation for courses he will take which are conducted entirely in French.

Objective ten is the dictation. The chief value of dictation is that it reveals the degree of the student's aural comprehension and his ability to spell correctly. As an exercise, it affords an opportunity in auditory acuity, understanding of the oral word, correct spelling and grammatical accuracy.

If desired by the class as a whole (teacher and students), or forced by the administration, a final examination could be given. It should be very practical and draw upon as many objectives as possible. Therefore, it might be presented along the following lines:

1. You (the student) have received a tape recording from your French correspondent who has chosen this means of expression because he wants you to grasp all the over-tones of his message. You listen to the tape, understand its content and record a response to it. The oral response will be accompanied by two written texts of your monologue. One will be written in French orthography and the other in phonetic transcription.

2. You assume the role of a French teacher. Listen to a non-French speaker on tape, try to understand what he/she is trying to say and listen for mistakes in pronunciation and intonation. Write down the text in French orthograpy and in phonetic transcription, then record yourself reading the text in your conception of what should be corrected from the original text.

3. OR any similar practical exam chosen by the class through given suggestions.

The text books used in the course included:

1) Mueller, Niedzielski, Basic French, A Programmed Course, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968; Intermedia, 1972

2) Léon, Pierre, Prononciation du Francais Standard, Paris, Didier, 1966.

3) Various articles and excerpts were distributed in class.

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A Bargain in Any Language

USING A NEW SELF-INSTRUCTION APPROACH, A COLLEGE CAN NOW AFFORD TO OFFER COURSES IN NEARLY EVERY FOREIGN LANGUAGE - AND FOR AS FEW AS TWO STUDENTS

About the only recurring problem of State University of New York's (Buffalo) self-instruction language program is what to call the thing. With its spreadduring the past six years from a few New York colleges to about 100 campuses in all parts of the country, the project has gone through a variety of not especially satisfactory attempts to describe the nature of the languages it primarily deals with.

"Neglected languages" wasn't quite accurate. Neither were "non-western" or "uncommonly taught" languages. The fourth and current try - "critical languages" - is admittedly on the mysterious side.

But that doesn't really matter. What matters is that the Self-Instruction Program in Critical Languages has brought a great many skills to students who otherwise wouldn't have developed them. And along the way it has made considerable contributions to the state of the art of language instruction. Peter Boyd-Bowman, who originated the concept at Kalamazoo College in Michigan and now manages it for SUNY, thinks that the self-instruction approach is a good way to teach any language, particularly in a time of tight budgets.

Recognizing this fiscal squeeze faced by the academic community, OE's Institute of International Studies looked into the feasibility of the self-instructional approach within the broader context of individualization of modern foreign language instruction. As part of this effort a three-year contract was awarded in 1969 to permit Peter Boyd-Bowman to broaden the scope of his program to include other States, accompanying funds totaled $112,500. Participating schools and colleges were given "seed" money to establish the program with the clear understanding that after a two-year period each program would have to be completely self-supporting.

The focus of the self-instruction approach is on languages that some students in a given college want to study, but not enough students to justify setting up a regular classroom course. Thus the subject matter varies from campus to campus, depending upon which languages two or more students develop an interest in.

In any case and whatever language, the course is a tough one. Students work mostly by themselves, using tape-recorded material and texts. They meet, usually once a week, with a "tutor" who is just that - not a teacher.

From the viewpoint of the college, the key attractions of the program have to do with convenience and economics. As Dr. Boyd-Bowman says, "Self-instruction is now a proven method that makes it possible to offer a course at a reasonable cost to as few as two students." And two

students are exactly the number who are studying first-level Arabic at Vassar College, for instance.

Their tutor, an Arab engineer now living in this country, is exhilarated that two American students want to learn his native tongue. According to Lewis W. Falb, who directs the program at Vassar, the engineer does his tutoring partly out of a "sense of obligation to his culture." Such enthusiasm could lead to time-wasting diversions, of course, if it weren't controlled.

Tutors are not supposed to try to teach as such, or to spend time talking about their nations. They are supposed to converse in their native language with the students, drilling them and correcting them but covering only material already studied on the tapes. The students listen to the tutor, mimic his intonations and even physical gestures. But they learn on their own.

The tapes they use come from such established sources as the U.S. Army and the State Department's Foreign Service Institute. Thus to offer a course a college must take only three steps: First, purchase the master tapes, each of which may have 40 or 45 lessons on it; second, make tape-playing equipment available; and third, locate a tutor.

Ideally, tutors are foreign-born graduate students. Almost as satisfactorily, they may be local residents or the wives or husbands of faculty members.

Who signs up for these difficult do-it-yourself courses, and why?

"Most of our students are people who are planning to be in a particular country in the next year or two and want to be familiar with its language," says Richard Auletta, director of the program at C.W. Post College in Greenvale, New York. "Some are going there to study. Occasionally someone expects to be abroad on business. But the big majority are planning what I'd call an intense type of tourism. Because of some special interests, they plan to be in a particular country for three months or more."

One of the special interests, of course, may be the student's own antecedents. Sonia Karsen, director at Skidmore College in Saratoga Springs, New York, notes an especially strong upsurge of interest among Oriental-Americans of the second or third generation in learning more about their ethnic backgrounds.

Given the hard work that goes into learning a foreign tongue and the enormous discipline required by the self-instruction approach, Dr Boyd-Bowman suggests that the program be regarded "as a kind of 'honors' course to which only serious students of very high potential and great emotional stability will be admitted. "In practice the administration of the program is usually less demanding, and though a language aptitude test is prescribed, it is often not used. At Skidmore College Mrs. Karsen explains very carefully what is involved in the course and the severe challenge of self-instruction, but she rarely seems determined specifically to discourage anyone.

The languages to be offered are usually selected on the basis of student demand, but sometimes administrative stimulus enters the picture, too. Recently, for example, Kent State University in Ohio offered not only Chinese, Japanese, and Swahili, but a course in Yoruba as well. The latter attracted only a few students but Kent State offered it anyway as a step toward strengthening an institutional connection it maintains with the University of Ibadan in Nigeria. Kent also has connections with an Iranian university and is therefore planning to add Persian (Farsi).

In general, the ruling principle seems to consist of responding to genuine interest but avoiding a language that is simply a momentary fad.

Although the tutors do not "teach," they are supposed to observe student progress and report it to the director. (Formal evaluations are made by periodic examinations performed by a linguist brought in from outside the school). As the manual for directors in the program states, the tutors are "technically ...informants, but popularly this term has unfavorable connotations and should be avoided. . ."

In so far-flung an enterprise as the Self-Instruction Program in Critical Languages there are bound to be deviations from recommended procedure. Problems have developed in various places over failure to orient properly either the tutor or the students, or both. At times the tutor may be found to have "nonstandard features" of speech that confuse the student. To offset this, some directors are taping an entire tutorial session early in the course and sending it to Eleanor Jorden of Cornell University, one of the most sought-after examiners in the program. Dr. Jorden then sends comments and recommendations by return tape.

The tutorial sessions themselves are usually relaxed and made especially attractive by the interesting kinds of people who turn up as tutors. At C.W. Post, a young woman named Marilyn Mastrandrea, whose father came from Brazil to open a business in New York City, patiently pronounces the nasalized sounds that contribute to making Portuguese a different matter from Spanish. At Skidmore, Portuguese is handled by another Brazilian, a young man from the new capital of Brasilia, while a White Russian emigree tutors Russian with a vigor that belies her age.

From the standpoint of an administrator, one of the more attractive aspects of the Self-Instruction Program is that it can strengthen the foreign language offerings of a college with only the most gentle imposition on its curricular pocketbook. Obviously, the program could be administered by any college or university regardless of size or degree of prestige. It would, however, seem to be of particular benefit to those developing institutions with financial means not quite proportionate to their ambitions to expand their services to cover more student needs.

Sample costs for a representative Self-Instruction Program run to

about $120 for the prerecorded master tape, $20 each for additional copies made in bulk, $10 each for boxed tapes, and $10 for each copy of the text. A usuable stereo player costs about $160, making a total outlay of $360 in capital equipment for a course attended by two students. Operating costs might be about $300 for the tutor at $2.50 an hour for 10 weeks, and $400 for the visiting examiner's honorarium and travel expenses.

As for results, the available evidence is spotty, chiefly because intensive followup has not been practical. "Probably we should try harder to find out how the students go on to use the language," says Lewis Falb at Vassar. "But like so many other things in academe, this gets overlooked in the crush of daily responsibility." On the basis of student reaction, however, the program would seem to be successful. In a survey conducted last year, more than 90 percent of the respondents judged it either "very successful" (41 percent) or "moderately successful" (54 percent). A majority of 54 percent said their work in language self-instruction was "more rewarding" than their other courses.

"Classroom competition" was not missed, according to answers to the questionnaire, because "competition is just as keen in self-study."

Certain weak points also were mentioned: "...some tendency to waste time without supervision," "Language should tie in with culture of the country," "...at times boring - but not for long."

There is, of course, considerable controversy within the language education community on the effectiveness of selfinstruction, with its emphasis on speaking rather than writing. Dr. Boyd-Bowman has a number of allies, including many in the language department at Cornell who serve as examiners for his program. On the other side stand those who emphasize traditional methods of learning that are primarily geared to reading the language. The self-instructional program, however, is flexible enough to permit tailoring programs to individual needs and does not exclude the teaching of reading.

In any case, the present program carries the student to only a fundamental level of proficiency and no claim is made that it will prepare the specialist who wishes to master reading in order to do foreign-language research in his field. Meanwhile, the approach is being explored for wider application.

"There are many interesting experiments going on," says Richard Auletta. "For example, we are closely watching an experiment at the State University at Stony Brook in which Latin is being taught without the aid of English. Only Latin is spoken in the class, and all written material also is in Latin. If it works, the same procedure could be used for such languages as Italian, French, or Russian."

Not too many Critical Language students, dutifully memorizing their dialog, being drilled for rapid response by the tutor, and submitting to a ten-minute quiz once a week, will go on to a linguistic specialty. A survey by Dr. Boyd-Bowman showed that the reason for taking the course most often cited by students was "cultural interest." Following in order were "desire to travel," "intellectual challenge," "career goals," and "belief in the growing importance of the non-Western world."

Limited though the self-instruction courses may seem to be, however, their presence can have a significant impact on an institution's language curriculum. At C.W. Post, for example, so many students signed up for the self-instruction course in Hebrew that the administration decided to make instruction in that language a standard offering. The course now enrolls some 85 students.

"That kind of development is one of the basic purposes of the program," says Auletta. "The self-instruction approach gives us a chance to test the water - to offer a particular language on a specialized basis to see whether it attracts enough students to have a full-time teacher and schedule. And at the same time, of course, we can serve students interested in nonstandard languages for which the demand is restricted."

American Education, November 1972

THE TAPE RECORDER IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

All our contributors in this number concern themselves, to greater or lesser degree, with the use of the tape recorder or language laboratory. The disillusionment of the sixties, the result of initial over-optimism, unreliable and unsuitable equipment, inadequate materials and teacher-training, and monotonous pattern drills, is now being replaced by new impulses, a fresh view of the language laboratory as one part of an integrated process, and by programme types, exemplified here by Keller and Keuleers, which are both more demanding and more rewarding than the behavioural or purely audio-lingual drills of a few years ago.

Our next issue (January) will contain further articles on language laboratory disposition, programmes, integration into courses, and a bibliography. We shall also take up for debate the threat posed to the fixed language laboratory by developments in cassette recorders. Contributions on these, as on other topics, will be very welcome.

Ellen Lipensky

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Language Laboratories and the Concept of Integration

One of the words that has constantly cropped up in discussions about language laboratories in the 70's is "integration". The term has, however, been used to describe a wide variety of teaching situations.

Integration has meant, for example, the addition of a few hours of laboratory work to an existing course with no real connection between the two. It has also been used of courses where all the material has been adapted for laboratory work and where all the teaching has been carried out with the students working at their tape-recorders. Inbetween these two extremes the word integration has often been used of situations where exercises in the laboratory have been prepared and followed up in the classroom.

This is all very well, but would it not be possible to carry integration even further? It may be that the language laboratory itself is the main obstacle to achieving this goal, at least in its present form.

As we all know language laboratories are expensive, and once bought they have to be used as fully as possible. This is achieved by placing all the equipment in one single room - the more student places the better - each class then being allotted a few hours practice in this room each week. The teacher feels that he must make as efficient use of the electronic equipment as he possibly can. So he sits down behind the teacher's console, puts on his headset, and starts monitoring - even though he may feel that, from a pedagogical point of view, this is not the most efficient way of working at all. The question is: How could a teacher be given freedom to select the type of teaching that he finds suitable for each part of the course?

Language laboratories are expensive

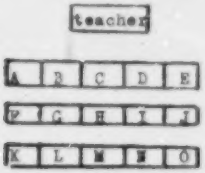
Yes, they are, but is all that sophisticated equipment always needed?

The most expensive parts of a language laboratory are the teacher's console and the wiring, but for some uses I think one could manage very well with only separate students' places - maybe connected to a master tape-recorder. The amount of money needed for a complete laboratory for 20 students

would suffice for at least 30 separate students' positions. Would a change-over to separate booths be an advantage? In some cases I think it might, but only with a teaching technology adapted to the changed conditions.

The set-out of students' booths

Picture 1. Class-room set-out of booths.



A very common formation for students' booths is shown above. This is the old-fashioned class-room with tape-recorders added. The main disadvantages with this formation are:

1. Visual disturbance.
   a. A teacher speaking to and looking at student O will also attract the attention of students C, D, E, I, J, and N.
   b. A teacher demonstrating something on the black-board to a single student will disturb the whole group.
   c. Two students discussing a problem may excite the curiosity of the whole group.
   d. Persons entering or leaving the room will disturb the whole group.

2. Aural disturbance.
   The insulation between booths is usually not sufficient because of the - assumed - need for visual communication. This is particularly important for testing purposes.

3. Spatial disturbance.
   a. When student C wants a new tape, he has to force his way past students B and A or D and E, disturbing not only these two but also the rest of the group.
   b. Any kind of individual non-wire-borne communication is almost impossible, e.g. a teacher who wants to show a student something in a book will come against great problems.

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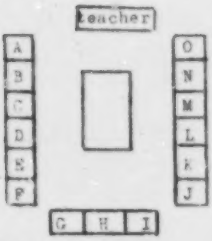
All this will be changed if the booths are placed as in Picture , where they all are turned against the wall.

Picture 2. Booths against the walls.



With this formation the teacher may address any student, who by turning his head can have visual contact with the teacher without disturbing anyone else. The teacher is also free to walk around the room, to plug in his headset into any single tape-recorder, to gather one or more students round the table in the midile of the room for individual tutoring or for exercises in small groups. The main problems with the class-room formation are overcome. How, then, does this, the best of all situations, influence our discussion about integration?

As I see it, true integration between different teaching media means selecting the best possible method for each student for each part of a subject, and not simply having access to one teaching aid - e.g. a language laboratory - a few scheduled hours each week for one group. On the other hand, it is neither realistic nor desirable to turn every class-room into a language laboratory, but some kind of compromise may be possible.

Suggestion

The solution for large and moderate-sized teaching institutions would be to have one or porsibly two language laboratories of the audio-active comparative type with a teacher's console and - let's say - 20 students' places. Instead of installing further "complete" laboratories, some rooms could be equipped with separate students' booths - not connected with each other and with no teacher's console.

In such a room the following activities could be carried out:

1. Ordinary class-room work (around the table in the middle of the room).
2. Individual work with tape-recorders. The teacher may walk around the room behind the students' backs and find out where he is best needed.
3. A group of students may need some extra teaching. This may be carried out round the table while the other students continue working in the booths.
4. Sub-groups may be occupied with different activities in different parts of the room.

With the above organization each room will be considerably less expensive than a complete language laboratory. This means that more rooms may be equipped in this way, which in its turn provides possibilities for a true integration between different media. In addition, it also leads to a high degree of individualisation. It might also have the desirable result that the language laboratory would be regarded as one useful teaching device among many others without its present aura of technological mysticism.

Björn Lussensky
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A. Reuleers

Habit and Creativity in Language Learning

The Use of Mediators in Cognitive 'Drills'

The term 'cognitive drills' is used here to distinguish these exercises from the traditional automatic drills in which the student learns to handle a single pattern by using it with new words by analogy with a given example. Cognitive drills, as we use them, entail explicit insight into grammatical rules before the student can start, and conscious intellectual decisions while doing them. There may be a lot of sound objections to the word 'drill', but as long as there is no better term expressing systematic practice while learning, we shall have to use it.

The results of the imitative drills without insight are confined largely to parrotlike fluency in a finite set of phrases, which can only be repeated if the same situation presents itself to the learner, whereas the real aim of language learning should be a creative capacity to make one's own sentences, autonomously and flexibly, to communicate in an endless variety of situations. A tourist, for example, rattling off some of these overlearned items may give the impression that he is speaking like a native, just as pigeons conditioned to play ping-pong may give the impression that they act like real players. In both cases the subjects repeat a finite set of automatic movements. Their behaviour does not spring from their own inward capacity to act; it has been merely affixed to them outwardly; they just do 'as if'; they don't generate their own acts. And because they are not the masters of their own acts, these utterances are rigid, unfree, without flexible transfer. The aim of second language learning is not to teach a stock of ready made phrases, which one can rattle off from memory, but the capacity to make them and any other sentence.

Automatic drill may be useful for those aspects of language for which no rule can be given e.g. idiomatic phrases like 'these last few weeks' etc. They are what they are; they must be used in a certain way and in no other. Once one has decided to take one of these phrases one has to follow the linear chain of the phrase and the next word is chosen exclusively on the basis of the preceding one. But language seems to be more than mere linear associations. Especially at the level of syntax it requires decisions that involve more complex processes than simple one-to-one associations. Sentences like 'Did you drink any whisky yesterday? or 'Have you drunk any whisky lately?' require several decisions of the speaker from the very beginning. It has to be a question; in the first case the past tense must be used and therefore 'did'. Such decisions can only be taken from the higher viewpoint that already envisages the end of the sentence before the first word is started. This means that, unlike idiomatic responses, the next word is not chosen exclusively on the basis of the preceding one, there is a more complicated initial choice at higher level which

in turn sets in motion operations at lower levels. Hierarchical processes like these cannot be explained as mere linear associations of elements, conditioned to each other by contiguity (i.e. the mere fact of frequently occuring together, as in Pavlov's experiments for instance) as behaviorism has tried to do, but by a synthetic capacity which is able to embrace and create all the separate elements into one structure or Gestalt.

In the native speaker these synthetic processes happen automatically; he does not need to think explicitly about his utterances; he 'feels' how it should be. For most adult learners, who have lost the child's ability to learn a language intuitively, it seems to be more consonant with his adult nature and more economical that they should take advantage of the intellectual capacities for more abstract rules which the child does not yet possess. As a provisional learning stage he can try to do consciously what the native speaker does implicitly when generating sentences; the aim and the hope is that after a sufficient amount of systematic practice he will gradually become able to omit conscious thinking while speaking the foreign language. The behavioristic approach, excluding conscious choices in the automatic drills, immediately aims at forming fluent speaking habits; but it omits to train the typically human element in speech, i.e. the capacity to work with hierarchical processes, and it is exactly this capacity that should be trained in the learning process. Speech production, like all human behaviour, is a mixture of what one has learned and of what one creates out of one's capacities. Speech utterances that are mere repetitions of what one has learned are rigid, blind automatisms. This is what happens to pigeons when they learn ping-pong without having the capacity for it; and this is what may easily happen in second language learning when only low level associations are grooved in by means of automatic overlearning without making an appeal to higher mental capacities. In fact there is little need to give special care to forming automatic habits in this sense; they will come, even faster and more strongly than the teacher may wish. Conditioning in the behavioristic sense of the word, does occur, but these blind, linear engravings are a caricature of what should be achieved in the learning process: rulegoverned creativity. The problem is how to draw the higher hierarchical levels of speech production into the learning process. Merely 'doing' it, i.e. saying phrases, will not suffice, because this comes to repeating or rattling off a linear chain; mere doing lacks the element of being created out of one's resources. As long as the learner in the learning stage does not have a nativelike competence, enabling him to produce his own grammatical sentences, he can always make grammatical sentences by means of grammatical rules; these sentences will be hierarchically organized as well as created by his own capacity, to the degree that the production of them is based on his own conscious insight into rules.

Speaking however is more than thinking about the language; it is doing the thing. Therefore a complex process of thinking and doing should be developed with a cognitive-active strategy. This will be the main practical problem: how to make the learner design his own sentences by means of insight while speaking them actively. This is different from what happens, for example, in fill-in exercises: there the learner almost exclusively concentrates on thinking the right form of a word

while the activity level is reduced to reading the sentence passively. Mere doing is not creative and will not develop creativeness, mere thinking is an abstraction and will not develop real speaking. But doing and conscious thinking at the same time may be the first step towards generating one's own sentences and developing and incorporating this creative capacity to the point where it becomes a subconscious skill that works automatically. The experiment we have carried out has shown that conscious instant is not a superfluous or even hindering intermediary stage, and that it can be made to fade away gradually towards automatical working.

Besides being cognitive-creating and active there is a third essential requirement for a foreign language learning strategy. It seems that a pupil learns what we teach him: if we only teach him to make grammatical transformations (put into the plural, past, passive) he may only have learned empty grammaticality but not the ability to communicate in real situations. Therefore the items of this course have been framed as short conversations in a given situation, enabling the learner to respond to natural, situational cues rather than to artificial, grammatical ones. For the sake of systematic (active-cognitive) practice in the language lab many varying details of situations had to be condensed into standardised models, so that the exercises are not fully situational and in a certain way artificial. The items will be different from conversations one can overhear in the street or at home: they are too condensed grammatically; every verb has to be repeated four times etc. This unnaturalness would be a serious shortcoming if the purpose of these exercises was to teach a stock of ready-made phrases (e.g. for the use of the tourist) which the learner has to repeat from his memory in the real situation. But here the learner will not be expected to repeat what he has learned in the lesson, but to make his own sentences on the spot. Moreover the practice in the language lab should be followed and completed by more situational and natural practice outside the lab, when the students converse on 'rule-centered' topics or act 'rule-centered' roles in simulated situations. The learners will benefit more from natural conversation practice if they have first achieved sufficient mastery over the structures by means of structured, 'unnatural' practice.

The actual form of the items has been imposed by the cognitive drill strategy, the main concern being to find a balance between cognition and doing, mixing them both into creative activity; secondly gradually decreasing the rate of explicit thinking towards nativelike automatization. It is essential for this method that the students should make the correct grammatical choices themselves, while keeping up a fairly high level of fluency. If the exercises are too easy the student will fall back on parrotlike repetitions without consciously applying rules and as a result only the lower levels of linear associations will be strengthened, which is a caricature of 'rulegoverned creativity'. If they are too difficult, not only will the students be discouraged instead of challenged, but the fluency of speaking will be broken up by the effort of thinking. It is only the unity of 'thinking-doing' that has a chance of becoming trained to the point of becoming an automatically working skill, not thinking and doing separately. As the difficulty of these exercises mainly depends on the fact that the students have to think and do them at the same time, the ideal level of difficulty for these exercises will mainly depend on the right balance between thinking and doing.

The level of difficulty can be manipulated by means of several devices. The use of a limited number of fixed models of sentence production will make the work easier for the students because they can work by analogy as long as the same model occurs. The fewer the models, or the larger the number of items for one model, the easier will be the task. On the other hand the complexity of sentence production is increased by the length and the number of the models, by their mixing and remodelling. Each model usually consists of five utterances, together forming a standardized conversation.

e.g. Look, Mr Brown is wearing a straw-hat, isn't he. (a)
Yes, he is. (b)
Does he often wear one? (c)
No, lately he has mostly worn a bowler hat; (d)
years ago he scarcely ever wore anything. (e)

This particular length for the models was chosen first of all because in parts b, c, d, e, of each model the students are made to work with cues like 'often?', 'lately', 'years ago' etc. and starting from these 'mediators' and the material given in part (a) they have to build new sentences actively (instead of reading) while consciously choosing the right structure (instead of repeating). We call these words 'mediators' because they elicit a conscious mediating stage which provisionally, during the learning stage, takes the place of the hierarchical processes working automatically in the native speaker. In this way the passiveness of most problem solving exercises is avoided as well as the linear, blind automaticity of the traditional drills.

A second reason for choosing this length has to do with repeating the feedback. If the sentence to be repeated is short the immediate memory will suffice to repeat it. (The immediate memory span is about seven words). This may be all right when the aim is to learn a stock of phrases; but when the aim is to develop a creative capacity, the phrase should be so long that the learner has to resort to an active use of his capacity in reconstructing the sentence. For that reason a feedback is not given after each part, but only twice. Finally the models were intentionally and systematically constructed so as to apply several rules at the same time and thus contrast them with each other and with interfering rules of the native language. In the given models, for instance, the four main cases of present and (simple) past occur: is wearing, often wears, has worn lately, wore years ago. The student has to use them in the proper situational context so that the situational meaning of each structure can be more clearly discriminated. The discriminative value of this display is further heightened by the varying display of the structures in the other models. A finding of Gestalt psychology is that better discrimination makes for better understanding, for better retention and more flexible transfer to other situations. Better discrimination consists in recognizing the crucial element of a rule in its relevancy for and applicability to a situation. For most adult learners this can be most economically achieved by preliminary insight into a rule and its limits of application. Instruction of abstract rules however should not be more abstract than strictly necessary, neither be more time consuming than strictly necessary. Our own experience is that the most efficient and economical way to assimilate rules consciously is to start immediately with the grammatical - situational clarification of the models, so that - at a glance - one can see the relevance of a given rule for a situation, and discriminate between several related rules in their applicability to a situation without having to make successive

reasoning steps. Moreover a successive, abstract procedure in applying rules would probably make speech production less fluent and slow down the necessary process of automatization. Therefore the grammatical survey, printed before the models, will be primarily useful as a background to the models, to be consulted in case of difficulties.

Why several models? The first year we used this kind of conversations we only took one model for all items in a given section (for the simple reason that we had not thought of giving written indications to the students; working several models at once without written indications is simply impossible). Experience soon showed that the students learned the place of each structure in the frame and found the right tense not by insight into the crucial element in the situation, but by means of its unchanging location, probably obeying 'la loi du moindre effort': the material position of an element seems to be one of the first and easiest things learnt. Even rats in a Skinner box have no difficulty in learning the material place of the lever. This is in fact what happens in most traditional drills. To rule out this low level of assimilation we introduced several models at once, and they were purposely constructed in such a way that the structures systematically occupy a different place in each.

The first lesson of a section usually starts with five models unmixed (5x3), the other models can be introduced in the second lesson (9x2). If more models are given or if they are immediately mixed from the beginning, the task will be too difficult for the students; they will hesitate, doing too much thinking at the expense of fluency. Moreover they will become discouraged and bored. From the third lesson onwards the models can be gradually mixed; (9 (1+1)). Only experience can show which rate of mixing should be chosen. In our experiment, for example, the mixing rate used in version B turned out to be too slow: after some time the students had learned the models - even when mixed - by heart and fell back on repeating them blindly. If the rate is too fast the overdose of thinking will spoil the fluency of speaking and the development of competence.

In order to avoid rigid engravings the original models should be remodelled after two or three lessons (9 (1"+1')), so that the learner's competence is constantly set new tasks; the models should be left aside like crutches and be replaced by a greater competence.

In the first lessons we use mediators which are an integral part of the sentence: 'yesterday', 'at the moment','since last week', etc. Their use leaves the student in no doubt as to which tense or aspect is expected. The procedure will not work with the future tenses or auxiliaries: 'tomorrow', for example, could be used equally well in several structures: 'I am playing tomorrow', 'he'll be playing tomorrow', 'she is going to play tomorrow', 'they'll play tomorrow'. The choice was either to return to repetitive exercises - non-cognitive, unchallenging and monotonous - or to adapt the mediators to the cognitive, active and situational needs of the particular cases. Thus, in addition to the 'enclosed mediators' used in the first lessons, 'constructed mediators' have been employed for future tenses and auxiliaries. They contain,

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in a concise, direct form, the crucial element in the situational meaning of a structure. An obligation: 'You ... do these exercises', could be interpreted in several ways: 'you must', 'you have to', 'you are to', etc., and the answer expected often remains ambiguous in spite of the presence of additional information in the sentence. If however, the sentence is accompanied by the element which is specific to the meaning intended, there is no longer any room for ambiguity. 'I oblige' (or: I O) can only be expressed by 'must', likewise 'circumstance' or 'task' only by 'have to'. From the use of constructed mediators of this sort the student will learn to discriminate more clearly between the different aspects of obligation, permission, prohibition, volition, etc., which belong among the basic rules of the English language.

It should be pointed out that constructed mediators are only intended as additional information,as concice as possible and printed above the line, in order to take away the last grain of ambiguity about the meaning expected. For this reason the students are told first to look at the general meaning and context of the sentences and not to respond to separate constructs. A few examples, taken from the chapter on permission, prohibition, possibility, may suffice to illustrate this. (see appendix) The actual form of the constructed mediators is based on a semantic-structural grammar: Leech, Meaning and the English Verb.

There may be theoretical objections especially to these constructed mediators, as being superfluous, hindering, unnatural. From experiments by Dees, Noble, Köhler, Rock and others it appears that additional words, pictures or images can be considered 'coding links' (Gagné) and are very useful mnemotechnical devices. Mediators mediate on several levels. From the viewpoint of automatic speech production in the target stage, mediators are the basis for a cognitive learning stage during which the learner does consciously - i. e. through cognitive mediation - what the native speaker does implicitly. The expectation is that nativelike, automatically working competence will be faster and better arrived at through provisory, cognitive mediation than by means of immediate automatic responding. As to the actual practice, mediators provide the learner with cognitive schemes for conscious insight into grammatical rules with which to translate situational meanings into structures. The learner has to find the structure himself; the mediators only give information about the situational meaning and so far are semantic and not structural. The semantic elements in the situations, corresponding to a given structure, should be so clearly differentiated in the mediators that the learner is able to choose and to generate the right structure for any new situation. Therefore we preferred semantic, instead of structural, mediators, based on a semantic grammar.

The actual form of these semantic explicit mediators should be so clear that they are able to evocate the expected meaning-structure in an unambiguous, fluent way. One reason why mediators may be unclear is that they must represent abstract rules. Indeed the great advantage of abstract principles over merely analogical examples is that they are free of the limitations adhering to concrete things and thus can be applied to an infinite range of cases for which the rule is relevant. (This is precisely the difference between conscious, discriminative application of rules and inferring from examples by analogy). Nevertheless it remains true that for the efficient solving

[illegible] by means of a rule, the rule to be applied should not be explained or represented more abstractly than strictly necessary. [illegible] of S. Katona's now classic experiments it appeared that the subjects who had been instructed by means of a rather long, abstract definition about the logical links involved, performed less sucessfully than those subjects who had directly and discriminatively seen and understood the relevance of the abstract principle for the given case. In other words the rule should be represented as much as possible in its direct, almost visible applicability in the particular example. The concreteness of this approach is still different from anything, as applied in repetitive drills, for example, as in the latter case no conscious application of an abstract principle is learned. The latter teaches examples, the former teaches 'by examples'.

It is especially important in language practice that the learner should be able to see and grasp the rule, as it were, at a glance, otherwise the fluent speed of production could be easily broken up by the elusiveness of the definitions and the length of discursive reasoning. For this reason, during the preliminary instruction for a new chapter, we do not explain the rules with the help of the grammatical survey included, but directly and extensively on model items (see appendix). The students are not requested to find the rules applied themselves; the self-discovery procedure would require too much time and is superfluous as the students have ample, creative, concrete practice afterwards. If the student has grasped the principles involved in the concrete models he will be able to avoid most of the mistakes usually made by trial and error, even in the systematic remodellings during the further course of the chapter.

For the same reason of direct applicability of the rules the present mediators do not have the tree-diagrammed form of algorhythms. The use of this device in teaching has been advocated by the Russian psychologue Landa on the assumption that the functioning of the human mind could be compared to a computer. In Kuljutkin's and Suchobskaja's experiment on recognizing objects, one group worked with an algorhythmic tree, the other group with a perceptual survey. Both performed significantly better than the control group but it turned out that most former subjects had not used the tree but had reduced the algorhythmic successive procedure by one dichotomic, simultaneous choice. Nearly all subjects who had worked with the perceptual survey were able to reproduce this model afterwards when asked for it, but nobody in the first group was able to reproduce the tree. Moreover the time needed by this group was so short that the successive procedure had to be excluded. The conclusion of the experimentators was that the optimal approach must be sought in line with the factual, spontaneous approach of the students. Algorhythms may be very useful for the acquisition of those new concepts that require an extensive, successive treatment, e.g. for very complicated processes. Perceptual displays are more appropriate for the acquisition of skills that require high, mechanical speed. Few or no conclusions in fact can be derived from the computer for the human mind. A computer, unlike the human being, is unable to identify an object on the basis of one simultaneous perception. If nevertheless it does so fast, this is due to the tremendous speed with which the successive operations are performed, which the human mind cannot be expected to imitate. (C. van Parreren, Sovjetpsychologen aan het Woord, 1973, 123-130)

In our given case a perceptual survey, though better than algorhythmic trees, would still be too complicated for fast, simultaneous identifications and fluent speech production: the chapter on permission, prohibition, possibility contains too many rules to be surveyed at a glance. The more or less insurveyable subject matter however can be simplified into smaller, more manageable subtasks by means of a limited number of standardized conversations, in which only a few structures occur and in a logical, discriminative contrast with each other. Once the student has understood the semantic function of the structures in the context of the models, he has some concrete, tangible support in the logical, limited tasks themselves, so that he will not have to go through the whole grammatical survey but can make fast, simultaneous decisions. This is another reason why the grammatical explanation is not given by means of the survey, but directly on the models. Of course from about the third lesson on, the items will be remodelled so that the learner becomes independent of any particular, concrete model and, leaving them as old crutches, gains some more abstracted and more differentiated organization of his verbal potentialities. But in the early lessons the difficulty level of the tasks should be manipulated in such a way - for the sake of fluency and automatization - that no more thinking should be required than strictly necessary, and that the student can start with simultaneous decisions immediately or as soon as possible. Indeed from another Russian psychologist, Schechter, we know that in the gradual process of cognition automatizing into skill, cognition passes through several cognitive stages before reaching full automatization. Initially the subject will identify an object by checking its features explicitly and maximally on the characteristics of the general concept, i.e. by means of a 'broad' identification device, which is able to deal with the whole, unstructured range of possibilities. After some time and gradually, however, he will use a 'narrow' device, which is attuned to a limited number of particular types, that can be recognized on the basis of one simultaneous, global perception. In chess, for instance, an experienced player will be able immediately to recognize certain types of problems and strategies, without having to resort to explicit and detailed checking of the situation and the principles.

As will be seen hereafter, and for still other reasons, the general, 'broad' rule for the use of 'must not' will be reduced to several, more particular types, indicated by words like 'foolish', 'stupid', 'impolite' etc., that help to identify a given context in one fast, simultaneous perception without having to check all the elements in the broad rule, stating that 'must not' is used when the speaker not only refuses permission but positively forbids something as being positively wrong. (Leech, p. 134) In a similar way the 'broad' rule, controlling the use of the past and perfect tenses, is replaced by more concrete types like 'last week', 'last year' etc., and the speech utterances are organized round the direct connection of the meaning of these words with the corresponding structure.

Another advantage of using several, more concrete types instead of one mediator for the broad rule is that one prevents the structure from being blindly mechanically conditioned to one word that after some time may easily become meaningless. This danger is not hypothetical in systematic practice such as cognitive drills are. As it appeared in two of our experiments, systematic practice, if not systematically varied, constantly runs the risk of automatizing - prematurely - undifferentiated and unabstracted relationships into

very solid, but blind and rigid associations or habits, which are a caricature of the real learning process.

Even when the rule is not presented in an unnecessarily abstract and discursive way, the actual form may still be vague and elusive and fail to evocate the meaning-structure expected. From the second experiment as well as from experience during practice it appeared, for example, that the mediator 'urgent' did fairly well for 'have got to', but not 'epoli' a compound of 'extra-polite informative query for will be coming', nor 'perstrO', meaning personal, strong obligation for 'must', a form of mediators that we had used during the first years. The problem may be resolved by making the mediators 'pregnant', as defined by K. Duncker. (Zur Psychologie des Produktiven Denkens, 1963). A stimulus (Evokationsreisz), i. e. the mediator, is pregnant to the degree that it tends to call up the content intended and only that particular content. E. g. 'Rome' is more likely to be evocated by the description ('Signalement') 'the capital of Italy' than by 'a mediterranean town'. As Ducker states: 'Das Signalement musz dem Gegenstand gut sitzen', for which he distinguishes four conditions. A description will be pregnant to the degree that it is complete (vollständig), concise (knapp), accurate (richtig) and appealing (triftig). (p. 96)

As the three first elements seem evident and need no further clarification here we shall concentrate on the fourth element. Something appeals to someone, when it catches the eye (inward or outward), when it is outstanding. In this sense a remark may strike you, go home. Two evocators may be equally complete, concise, accurate, yet one may fail to evocate a given content because it fails to strike and catch the eye. (C. van Parreren, Psychologie van net Leren, 1970; 2/749)

In accordance with the laws of Gestalt, a mediator should have its own face so as not to disappear in an homogeneous, unstructured field. It should be vivid and distinct from the rest, it should stand out in sharp relief against the neighbourhood. There are several ways of making a mediator more appealing. One way is to give it a rich content so that it acquires a face of its own and provides the learner with more cognitive support for simultaneous identifications. For example, the difference in prohibition between 'must not', 'may not' and 'cannot' is often stated as very strong, less strong, not strong, which is correct, but probably too colourless to bring the difference home. 'Positively forbidden' for 'must not' versus 'not allowed' (see Leech, p. 134) will add some more colour to it, but not so strong as: 'you would be foolish, impolite, reckless etc., if you did so', abbreviated into 'foolish!', 'impolite!'. We have already pointed to other advantages in connection with Schechter's findings.) In a similar way for (J.B. Allen's[1])general) 'necessitate',richer types for identifying obligation could be found, like 'I oblige' for must, or instead of 'external obligation' 'task' and 'circumstance'.

One special way of enriching the content is to represent the abstract meaning by a direct expression, e. g. for must 'obligation imposed by the authority of the speaker' by 'I oblige'; in querulous questions with an expectedly negative answer by 'YO? no' (=do you oblige me? please no!). Similarly 'I P' instead of permission on personal authority.

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1) J.P.B. Allen, "Applied Grammatical Models in a Remedial English Syllabus", in S.P. Corder-E. Roulet, Theoretical Linguistic Models in Applied Linguistics, 1973

In fact similar devices have long been used in pedigogy and are nothing new.

These direct forms can be combined with a direct expression of the negation: 'not' instead of (as in J. B. Allen) 'neg'. Absence then of obligation, i. e. 'I don't oblige you' can be rendered by I O not ('not' is printed on the line because it is part of the sentence to be constructed.)

Enriched mediators like these, usually consisting of one well-chosen, relevant word, are much more appealing than vacant compounds like 'epoli' or 'perstrO'. They certainly bring home the meaning-structure better than purely abstract or conventional symbols like characters and numbers.

In some cases it may be difficult to find one relevant, unambiguous word in the target language. In English obligation, for instance, there is (in most cases) a semantic difference between 'he has to', meaning he is obliged, and 'he needs to', meaning for his own good he is required to. (Leech, p. 130). The latter meaning could maybe be rendered by 'necessary', but this word has strong semantic connections with 'necessity' and 'necessitate', meaning obligation. The Dutch word 'nodig' (notig) has the same basic meaning as 'need to', as distinct from 'necessity', which would be translated by 'noodzaak', 'noodzakelijk'. In these exceptional cases we don't see why there should be anything against the limited use of an unambiguous native word. In any case from our third experiment it appears that the group cued with 'nodig', constantly makes less mistakes than the group cued with 'neces'.

In this case the better performance of the 'nodig'-assisted group may have been caused by another, connected factor that is very important for making the mediators more appealing. Being a native word it is clearly set apart from the other mediators in the target language and makes the list of mediators less homogeneous and less susceptible to clustering (bereichsbildung), as defined by W. Köhler-von Restorff. For homogeneous material has a tendency to become an inextricable mass in which the various elements lose their individual faces.(C. van Parreren, 1970, P. 2/157) The same influence of relief in the subject matter has been stated by the Russian psychologist Idaskin: elements in the subject matter that stand out by their novelty or unusualness have a greater chance of being assimilated in spontaneous, automatic learning, i. e. even without any explicit learning intention /C.van Parreren, 1970, p. 2/126). And in his experiments J. Nuttin found that heterogeneous word pairs were better retained than homogeneous ones.

These constant findings may answer a seemingly obvious objection to introducing native words as being inconsistent. It may be inconsistent indeed as far as uniformity is concerned, but unusual forms are more efficient and so far it is more consistent from a pedagogical point of view.

By way of conclusion one could say that mediators must be abstract and represent abstract rules, otherwise they would miss the indispensable transferability of abstract principles to an infinite number of new, particular cases. On the other hand they must be decoded at a glance into fluent speaking and appeal to the learner, otherwise he will not know what meaningful utterance he is expected to generate. If mediators meet these requirements they may be - during this provisory cognition-mediated stage - an appropriate device for making the learner construct his own sentences, in an infinite number of new settings, and meanwhile speak fluently.

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Appendix

Examples of models and tasks.

as ROLLS

m 1 : (1st parent) Bill foul: I P Not must not keep Guinea pigs in our cellar, must he. (2d parent) No, he mustn't do anything so foolish (be so foolish, behave so foolishly); we perm! not I won't let him keep anything else but mice, will we./ (1st parent) Oh mice? he annoy irrita might keep something cleaner; generalP could Sam keep anything at that age?/ Yes, he Pdone was allowed to keep animals for the first time at seven; his friends theyP can (are allowed, permitted to) even keep rats.

m 2 : (to policeman) YouP? May I stop here, sir? No you formal I P Not may not! unformal You I P Not can only do so behind the bend. Oh but last time we P were allowed to stop here, weren't we?/ Yes, you generalP could do so any time until recently; you possib might cause an accident now (works on!); so you stupid:I mustn't stop here right now.

m 3 : (Mr Rolls to Fred) Your friend Sam they Not P is not allowed to (can't) catch strange cats and you I P Not may not do so either. y p? n't Can't I catch our neighbour's cat then? No, you stupid:I P never must never catch one of his cats; you possib might (could) drive him wild; but I P you can catch rats, if you like. You I P were allowed to do that last year too.

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1. (not very kind of you!) You reproach *help* these people. Yes I dyr--; I suggest now right now. possible? Mr Ford * ?/Oh yes, if you ask, he possib * a lot; he possib just not *have the opportunity yet.

2. (not very considerate) You reproach *visit* poor Mr Weight. Yes dyr.. of course; I suggest now right now. possib? Mr Grade * ?/Oh yes, if you ask, he possib * every week-end; he possib just not *have an opportunity yet.

3. ? YouP I *ride *on that elephant, father? No, you fool: I P not do reckless; you possib *fall off; but you I P * on a donkey, if you like. Oh but why fool: not I * as Paul*last week?/Oh but (as yet) Paul never P ; and he instruc not P now either.

4. ? Y P I *experiment *on rats, father? No, I not do nasty: possib be bitten; but you I P on peas, if * like. Oh but why fool: not I * as Tom*last year?/ (as yet) I never P ; instruc not now either.

Gottfried Keller

Der didaktische Ort des Arbeitsprojektors im Sprachlabor

(überarbeitete Fassung eines Vortrages vor dem internationalen Kongress für Fremdsprachenlehrer 1972 in Saarbrücken).

Die Sprachlaborarbeit befindet sich nach einer zehnjährigen Unterrichtspraxis in einer Krise. Die hochgespannten Erwartungen der ersten Jahre sind nicht in Erfüllung gegangen, die Schüler zeigen nach anfänglicher Begeisterung immer weniger Motivation, nur wenige Lehrer benutzen die Sprachlehranlage regelmässig, und der Transfereffekt vieler Übungen wird in Frage gestellt. [1]

Im folgenden wollen wir zunächst den methodisch-didaktischen Ursachen für die Krise nachgehen und Hypothesen aufstellen, die zu ihrer Überwindung beitragen können.

1. Die durch Technik der Anlage bedingte Notwendigkeit zur Schematisierung von Sprachlaborübungen in Form des audiolingualen Vierphasendrills führt durch eine oft dogmatische Festlegung auf ein Lern- oder sprachtheoretisches Konzept zu einer methodischen Enge, die in ihrer Monotonie auf die Schüler motivationshemmend wirkt.

Um eine grössere methodische Variabilität zu erzielen, lässt sich durch die Berücksichtigung verschiedener lerntheoretischer und linguistischer Ansätze eine grössere Anzahl abwechslungsreicher, sich gegenseitig ergänzender Übungen entwerfen, die sowohl zu einer höheren Lerneffektivität als auch zu einer grösseren Motivation der Schüler führen.

3. Rein audio-linguale Übungen bieten, besonders für visuell begabte Kinder, keine optimalen Lernbedingungen, zudem wirken sie infolge ihrer Einseitigkeit auch dann noch langweilig, wenn sie stets situativ eingebettet werden.

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1) vgl. L. Schiffler, Geht es ohne die Technik nicht besser im Sprachunterricht? in: Probleme und Möglichkeiten des Sprachlabors, Dortmund 1972, S. 50 und D. Symma, Sind situative Sprachlaborübungen nur eine unterhaltsame Spielerei? ibid. S. 57 f.

Dieser Nachteil kann durch einen Medienverbund von Film, Fernsehen, Dias oder Arbeitsprojektor gemildert werden, da durch eine Kopplung von visuellen und akustischen Stimuli sowohl der Lernerfolg als auch die Motivation wächst.

3. Bei der methodisch-didaktischen Diskussion über den Spracherwerb einer Fremdsprache geht man oft von der Annahme aus, dass der Lernprozess bei allen Schülern gleichartig verlaufe. Die Erfahrung zeigt jedoch, dass dies nicht der Fall ist und kognitive und behavioristische Lernschritte bei den einzelnen Begabungsgruppen verschiedenen Stellenwert besitzen.

Optimale Bedingungen für den Lernprozess aller Schüler werden erst dann erzielt, wenn für alle Begabungsrichtungen adäquate Programme vorhanden sind.

4. Trotz der Bestätigung der Schülerantwort durch den Lehrer zeigt ein Abhören der Tonbänder immer wieder, dass die Schüler ihre eigenen Fehler entweder gar nicht oder nur teilweise erkennen. Eine für Schüler objektiv gültige Bestätigung ihrer Leistung gibt es durch rein akustische Impulse im Sprachlabor nicht.

Durch eine Kombination von akustischen und visuellen Impulsen eröffnen sich aber Möglichkeiten zu einer Objektivierung der Leistungsbestätigung, die auch für den Schüler vollkommen transparent ist und somit motivationsfördernd wirkt.

Da der Arbeitsprojektor bei einem relativ geringen Arbeitsaufwand am vielfältigsten in der Praxis eingesetzt werden kann, wollen wir seinen didaktischen Ort im Sprachlabor unter Berücksichtigung der oben aufgestellten Hypothesen bestimmen und untersuchen, welchen Beitrag der Medienverbund von Labor und Projektor zur Überwindung der methodisch-didaktischen Krise zu leisten vermag. Dabei wollen wir an einigen Beispielen die Prinzipen der methodischen Möglichkeiten darstellen.

Um die verschiedenen, für den Einsatz des Arbeitsprojektors wichtigen Faktoren zu beschreiben, wählen wir den Weg über ein als Regelkreis konzipiertes Modell, das den Vorzug hat, die Interdependenz der einzelnen Informationsträger anschaulich darzustellen und die Strukturierung des didaktischen Feldes transparent erscheinen zu lassen. Zugleich liegt der Vorteil des Modells in seiner Flexibilität, da es die Möglichkeit eröffnet, neue wissenschaftliche Erkenntnisse einzubauen und je nach der Lernsituation, die einzelnen Teilbereiche entsprechend zu akzentuieren oder zu relativieren.

Anl. 1

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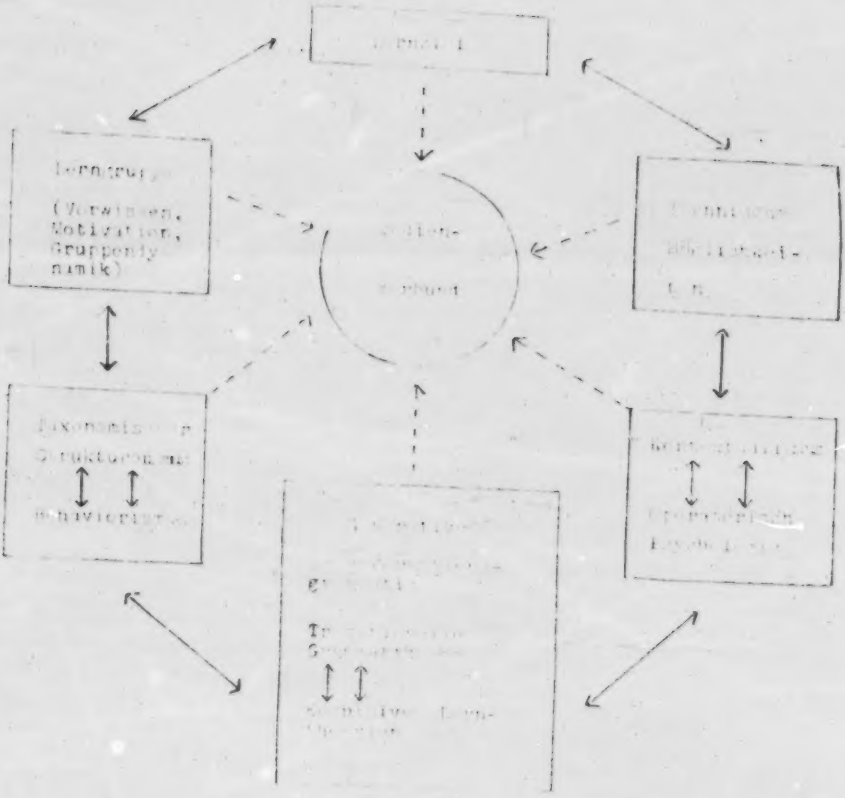


Erweiterung der methodischen Möglichkeiten durch einen Medienverbund

Der Einsatz des Arbeitsprojektors ermöglicht eine Auflockerung des Vierphasendrills durch einen Wechsel von Bild- Schrift- und Tonimpulsen in der ersten und dritten Phase. Für räumliche Zuordnungen, Demonstrationen von Handlungsabläufen, Situationen, pattern-drills und Transformationsübungen lassen sich Bild-Schrift- und Tonimpulse vielfältig kombinieren (Abb. 2). Insgesamt gibt es 28 verschiedene Übungsmöglichkeiten, die wir unter formalen Gesichtspunkten bereits dargestellt haben. [2]

Abb. 2

Schema für den Einbau visueller Impulse in den Vierphasendrill.

	STIMULUS	REAKTION	BESTÄTIGUNG	WIEDERHOLUNG
LEHRER	BILD SCHRIFT TON		BILD SCHRIFT TON	
SCHÜLER		TON SCHRIFT		TON SCHRIFT

Im folgenden wollen wir Lern- und Sprachtheorien auf ihre praktische Verwendbarkeit zur Bestimmung eines Medienverbundes hin befragen. Dabei leiten wir nach dem Vorschlag Hüllens aus den Prinzipien der Sprachtheorien pragmatisch verschiedene, sich gegenseitig ergänzende Übungsketten ab, und versuchen, sie lernpsychologisch zu begründen. [3]

Behavioristische Lerntheorien.

Aus den einfachen, vornehmlich auf Tierversuchen basierenden behavioristischen Lerntheorien geht die S - R - Theorie hervor, die Lernen als ein Reiz-Reaktionsschema definiert und als Imitationsprozess beschreibt, der auf einem Transfer identischer Elemente beruht. [4] Skinner fasst Lernen als eine Verhaltensänderung auf, die sich durch operantes Konditionieren verstärken lässt [5] und

2) G. Keller und L. Hochgeschwender, Die Verwendung des Arbeitsprojektors im Sprachlabor. Das Sprachlabor und der audiovisuelle Unterricht 2/1970, S 45-51.

3) W. Hüllen, Linguistik und Englischunterricht. Heidelberg: Quelle und Meyer, 1971, S 85-140.
ders. Linguistische Modelle und didaktische Grammatik. Neusprachliche Mitteilungen aus Wissensch. u. Praxis, 1/1973, S 8-16.

4) vgl. R. Bergius, Analyse der 'Begabung': Die Bedingungen des intelligenten Verhaltens. in H. Roth (Herausg.) Begabung und Lernen, Stuttgart: Klett, 1969, S 234 ff.

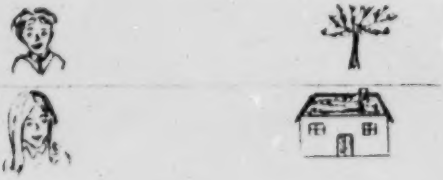
5) E.R. Hilgard/G.H. Bower, Theorien des Lernens I, Stuttgart: Klett, 1970, S 129 ff.

Guthrie führt in seiner Kontiguitätstheorie den Lernprozess nur auf die Verbindung verschiedener Assoziationen zurück. 6) Den Prinzipien dieser Lerntheorien lässt sich der taxonomische Strukturalismus von Fries zuordnen, der Sprache als ein System hierarchisch geordneter Strukturen auffasst. 7) Aus der Verbindung dieser Sprach- und Lerntheorien ergibt sich für die Praxis der pattern drill, bei dem in ein vorgegebenes pattern die einzelnen Segmente eingesetzt werden 8). Diese von Stack entworfenen Übungen gehören in die Anfangsphase des Sprachlabors. 9) Die Kritik an ihnen, sie seien zu monoton und ein Transfer auf neue Sprechsituationen finde nicht statt, besteht u.E. dann zu Recht, wenn man im Sprachlabor ausschliesslich solche Übungen durchführt und sie nicht kontextbezogen, sondern rein audiolingual konzipiert. Sie haben jedoch besonders im Anfangsunterricht ihre Berechtigung. 10) Nach unsere r Beobachtung kann man ihre Monotonie weitgehend aufheben, wenn die einzelnen Segmente nicht nur akustisch, sondern auch visuell vermittelt werden.

Im Medienverbund von Labor und Projektor lassen sich die pattern drills visuell ausrichten.

Beispiel:

Die Personen: Jack. Mary, the children werden vorgestellt. Nach der Aufforderung des Lehrers: 'Tell me what the persons see', erscheint jeweils eine Person mit einem Gegenstand auf der Leinwand.



Jedesmal, wenn ein neuer Bildimpuls erscheint, formulieren die Schüler: 'Jack sees a tree', 'Mary sees a house' etc. Um situativ richtige Reaktionen auch auf sprachliche Stimuli zu erhalten, lassen sich wieder einfache Bildsituationen projizieren, wobei die Schüler auf entsprechende Fragen antworten.

6) Ibid. S 93 ff
7) Ch.C. Fries, The Structure of English. London: Lowe and Brydone, 1971
8) E.M. Stack, Das Sprachlabor im Unterricht. Bielefeld: Cornelsen, 1966, S 126 ff
9) E. Roeske, Von Stack bis heute. in E. Roeske (Herausg.) Probleme und Möglichkeiten des Sprachlabors. Dortmund: Lensing 1972, S 63 f.
10) vgl. H. Gutschow, Zum Problem der Situationsbezogenheit von Sprachlaborübungen. Programmiertes Lernen und programmieter Unterricht 2/1969, S 56.

Beispiel:

Lehrer: 'Does Mary see a tree'?
Schüler: 'No she doesn t, she sees a house'.

Lehrer: 'Do the children see a wood?'
Schüler: 'No, they don't, they see a garden'.

Mit Schattenbildern, die die Schüler selbst ausschneiden, kann man eine Vielzahl visueller Impulse aufbauen und je nach dem Lernziel schnell variieren.
Beispiel: Progressive Form.

Auf die Aufforderung: ' Tell me what the animals are doing': reagieren die Schüler auf die projizierten Bildimpulse.

the monkey	is	sitting	under a tree
the dogs	are	jumping	onto a car
		running	across the road

Diese visuellen Übungen rufen besonders in den ersten beiden Unterrichtsjahren grosse Begeisterung hervor, da durch eine ständige Variation der Bildmontagen die Schüler nicht mehr den Eindruck haben, Strukturen einzuüben, sondern kleine Situationen oder Geschehensabläufe, die lebendig und witzig sein können, direkt sprachlich zu gestalten. Die Monotonie der Stackschen drills wird durch die visuellen Impulse aufgelockert, die Kinder reagieren mit kreativem Sprachverhalten.

indem sie die unerwarteten Bildimpulse in Sprache umsetzen. Zugleich aber werden die Assoziationen von Bild und sprachlicher Äusserung in patterns gefestigt. Nach unseren Beobachtungen ist der Transfer bei solchen Übungen dann gross, wenn man sie in Sachbereichen und Situationsfeldern aufbaut, und Kontaktunterricht vorbereitet und in der Nachlaborphase in neues Sprachmaterial integriert.

Der pattern drill stellt jedoch nach unserer Meinung nur einen elementaren, einfachen Baustein beim Erlernen der Fremdsprache dar. Um der Gefahr zu entgehen, Strukturen durch overlearning stereotyp zu verfestigen, benötigen wir Übungen, die die Fähigkeit fördern, das gelernte sprachliche Material so zu variieren, dass die Schüler ihre Absichten, Handlungen, Wünsche, Gedanken, etc. ohne jeden Schematismus auszudrücken in der Lage sind. Zur Erreichung dieses Zieles können wir die behavioristischen Lerntheorien nur noch bedingt heranziehen, da diese Fähigkeit durch ein Regelsystem gesteuert wird, für das weder der Strukturalismus noch der Behaviorismus adäquate Beschreibungskategorien liefern.

Kognitive Lerntheorien.

Im Gegensatz zu den behavioristischen Lerntheorien fassen die kognitiven Lerntheoretiker Lernen nicht als Imitation oder Assoziation auf, sondern als einen kognitiven Prozess, der auf Verstehen der komplexen Zusammenhänge einer Ganzheit (Gestaltpsychologie) und auf der Einsicht in Regeln und Prinzipien basiert. [11]

Beim Gebrauch einer Fremdsprache würde ein Transfer von Regeln und Prinzipien [12] entweder explizit oder implizit die erstrebte Variabilität im sprachlichen Ausdruck ermöglichen. [13]

Den kognitiven Lerntheorien lässt sich sowohl die traditionelle Regelgrammatik als auch Chomskys generative Transformationsgrammatik zuordnen, da nach Chomsky der kompetente Sprecher ein Regelsystem besitzt, das ihn befähigt, mit einer begrenzten Zahl von Regeln unendlich viele Sätze zu formulieren und Fehler zu erkennen. Wenn eine Sprachlaborübung auf den Erwerb dieser beiden Fähigkeiten gerichtet ist, müssen Transformationsübungen die pattern drills ergänzen. Lernpsychologisch würden die Übungen einen Transfer von Regeln anstreben, um ein Höchstmass an sprachlicher Performanz zu erreichen.

Auch für diesen lernpsychologischen Ansatz bietet der Medienverbund von Arbeitsprojektor und Sprachlabor eine Anzahl methodischer

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11) W. Köhler, Die Aufgabe der Gestaltpsychologie, Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 1971, S 110. und E.R. Hilgard/G.H. Bower, a.a.O. S 260-297.
12) vgl. R. Bergius, a.a.O. S 237 ff.
13) D.P. Ausubel, F.G. Robinson, School Learning, New York: Holt, 1969, S 81 ff.
B.W. Beljajew, Über die grundlegende Methode und die Methodiken für den Fremdsprachenunterricht, in R. Freudenstein und H. Gutschow (Herausgab), Fremdsprachen, München: Piper, 1972, S 77-89.
L.N. Landa, Algorithmierung im Unterricht, Berlin (Ost): Volk und Wissen, 1969. Landa spricht nicht von Regeln, sondern von algorithmischen Vorschriften die den Lernprozess steuern, S 43 und 45 ff.

Möglichkeiten. Im Unterschied zu den pattern drills bleibt jetzt die Lexik konstant, und durch akustisch vermittelte Signale ändert der Schüler aufgrund seiner Kompetenz die Struktur. In der Praxis hat es sich bewährt, zunächst vom pattern drill auszugehen, bis die Kinder eine Reihe von Strukturen beherrschen, dann lassen sich zwei alternierende Transformationen miteinander

Beispiel: Negativtransformation

Lehrer: 'Jack is playing blind man's buff, and John isn't.
Now tell me what John sees.'

Schüler: John sees a house
a ball
a tree, etc.
Lehrer: 'Now tell me what Jack doesn't see.'

Schüler: 'Jack doesn't see the house
a ball
a tree, etc.

In der gemischten Übung werden jeweils die einzelnen Personen gezeigt und die Schüler reagieren entweder in der bejahten oder verneinten Form.

Lehrer: 'Tell me what John Sees, and what Jack doesn't see.'

Um die Fragetransformation einzubauen, dient folgende Anweisung:

Lehrer: 'NOw Mary arrives and wants to know everything.
She asks questions all the time.
Ask the questions for Mary!'

Schüler: 'Does Jack see the tree? Do the children see the house etc.'

Nun lassen sich - wieder mit den bekannten visuellen Mustern - drei Transformationen mischen.

Beispiel:

Lehrer: 'Now tell me what Jack doesn't see, what John sees,
which question Mary is asking.'

Für diese Übung ergibt sich dann folgende Struktur:

	Bild	Bild	
does	Jack	sees	house
	John	see	a ball
do	the children	doesn't see	a tree

Auf diese Weise lässt sich ein grammatisches System aufbauen, das den Schüler befähigt, die Eigenschaft des kompetenten Sprechers zu erwerben, grammatisch richtige Sätze zu formulieren. Dabei werden kognitive Regeln so stark habitualisiert, dass die Schüler auf bestimmte Impulse bewusst oder unbewusst die richtige Konstruktion auswählen. 14)

Im Laufe der Lernjahre summieren sich die grammatischen Regeln, und die Bildimpulse des Anfangsunterrichts verlieren ihre motivationsfördernde Wirkung. Um die Regeln in ständigem Wechsel einzuüben, hat es sich nach unseren Erfahrungen von der Mittelstufe ab (1. Lernjahr) bewährt, Kernsätze zu projizieren, damit das Schriftbild zur Erleichterung der Dekodierung dient. 15) Auf akustische Signale wandeln dann die Schüler nach den Prinzipien von Zimmermanns Signalgrammatik die Kernsätze um. 16)

Beispiel:

Akustischer Impuls	Projektion
yesterday	He goes home
I don't mind	she works hard
he wants	the children play
	in the garden

Schüler: 'Yesterday he went home.
I don't mind her working hard.
He wants the children to play in the garden.'

Die Wiederholung der Signalwörter bewirkt eine Auslösung kognitiver Schemata, die durch die ständige Übung in unbewusste Reaktionen überführen lassen und ein fliessendes Sprechen ermöglichen.

Schülerbefragungen ergaben eine positive Bewertung der Projektion von Kernsätzen, da man die Übung besser verstehen könne, und im Vergleich zum pattern drill der Übungseffekt bei Transformationen grösser sei.

Durch den Medienverbund von Arbeitsprojektor und Sprachlabor lassen sich behavioristische und kognitive Lerntheorien zu einer Übungssequenz koppeln. Dabei besteht der erste Teil aus einem pattern drill und der zweite aus einer Transformation des pattern in einer achtteiligen Übungsphase.

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14) vgl. D. P. Ausubel/F.G. Robinson, a.a.O. S 84.
15) vgl. C.F. v. Parreren, Lautbild und Schriftbild im Anfangsunterricht, Praxis 4/69, S 361 f.
W. Hüllen, Geschriebene Sprache als Lernhilfe im Englischunterricht, die Neueren Sprachen, 6/1969, S 282-297.
C.J. Dodson, Language Teaching and the Bilingual Method, London: Pitman, 1967, S 16 ff und S 25 f.

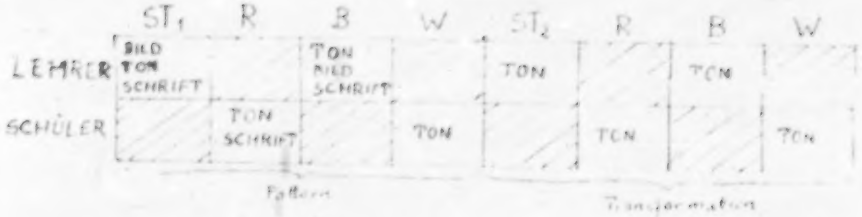
Beispiel: Indirect Speech

Lehrer: 'You are Mary, and tell me what you see'.

Schüler: (Aktion auf Bild wie oben)
'I see a tree.'

Lehrer: (akustisch)
'what did you say?'

Schüler: 'I said that I saw a tree.'



Unsere Erfahrungen bestätigen die Beobachtungen aus dem Französischunterricht über die D. Lübke berichtet. [17] Wenn es sich herausstellt, dass bestimmte grammatische Strukturen nicht mehr beherrscht werden (z.B. I want him to.., I don't mind you ..), haben gezielte grammatische Übungen in der Mittel- und Oberstufe immer dann einen grossen Motivations- und Transfereffekt, wenn die Schüler den unmittelbaren Nutzwert zur Beseitigung ihrer Fehler erkennen. Schülerbefragungen in Mittel- und Oberstufe ergaben immer wieder, dass für sie die in Noten sichtbare Leistungssteigerung bei Klassenarbeiten und der geringere Arbeitsaufwand bei der Erledigung der Hausaufgaben die entscheidenden Kriterien für die Motivation bei Sprachlaborübungen darstellten. Trotzdem aber bedürfen die Struktur- und Grammatikübungen einer weiteren Ergänzung durch situative Sprachmuster, die ältere Schüler oft als reine Spielerei ansehen.

Die operatorische Lerntheorie

Die lernpsychologische Grundlage für Situationsübungen (situational drills) bildet die Theorie Jean Piagets, nach der Lernen in Geschehensablaufen (Operationen) unter der Bedingung stattfindet, dass ein Spannungszustand zwischen Individuum und Umwelt auftritt, der durch Handlungsmuster, Geschehensabläufe und Aktivitäten überwunden wird, bis sich ein Gleichgewichtszustand (Äquilibration) zwischen beiden einstellt. Dabei gibt es zwei verschiedene, sich gegenseitig ergänzende mentale Prozesse: bei der Assimilation werden Erfarungen in bestehende Assimilationsschemata eingeordnet, während bei der Akkommodation es zur Bildung neuer Schemata kommt, da man Erfahrungen machte, für die die alten Schemata nicht mehr ausreichen. [18]

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16) G. Zimmermann, Integrierungsphase und Transfer im neusprachlichen Unterricht, Praxis 3/1969, S 245-260
17) D. Lübke, Situative Grammatik-Übungen im Sprachlabor, Die Neueren Sprachen 6/1973. S 306-313.
18) J. Piaget, Theorien und Methoden der modernen Erziehung, Wien. Molden, 1972, S 283 ff und 328 ff Leo Montada, die Lernpsychologie Jean Piagets, Stuttgart: Klett 1970, S 46 ff.

Die Übertragung dieser Lerntheorie auf die Sprachlaborarbeit bedeutet die Organisation der Lernprozesse in Situationen [19] die wir im Sinne Piagets als Assimilationsschemata auffassen können (shopping, railway-station, on the farm etc.). Das Ziel der Sprachlaborübungen ist dann die sprachlich richtige Reaktion auf bestimmte Geschehensabläufe (Operationen) innerhalb eines Sachfeldes.

Die Sprachtheoretische Entsprechung dieser Lerntheorien bietet der britische Kontextualismus [20] Da man lernpsychologisch Geschehensabläufe auf sprachliche Strukturen übertragen muss, ist bei dieser Übungsform ein Transfer von Strukturen erforderlich. [21]

Im Sprachlabor dienen Hörspiele, Geschichten und Erzählungen zum Übungsreservoir, bei denen die Schüler einzelne Rollen übernehmen. [22] Die Geschehensabläufe lassen sich durch entsprechende Zeichnungen visuell ergänzen, die einzelne Szenen darstellen. Sicher eignen sich hierbei Film und Fernsehen besser als die statischen Bilder des Arbeitsprojektors, doch hat es sich bei unseren Versuchen gezeigt, dass die Schüler besonders in den ersten beiden Lernjahren durch visuelle Unterstützung einen Handlungsablauf leichter verstehen können und bei einer späteren Rollenübernahme besser in der Lage sind, situativ richtig zu reagieren als ohne sie.

Die Lerngruppe

In der fachdidaktischen Diskussion zeigt sich ein grosser Mangel: man überträgt lernpsychologische Erkenntnisse allzu oft kritiklos auf alle Schüler, so als ob der Lernprozess immer gleichartig verliefe. In Wirklichkeit aber weiss jeder Praktiker, dass es Unterschiede gibt, die er im Unterricht ausgleichen muss. Grobunterscheidungen der Schüler in rational-logische und gefühlsmässig-intuitive Typen [23] oder langsame und schnelle Lerner [24] reichen

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19) In der fachdidaktischen Diskussion um den Situationsbegriff findet man keinen Bezug zu den lernpsychologischen Erkenntnissen von J. Piaget.
vgl. H.E. Piepho, Zum Begriff der 'situation' in der Didaktik des elementaren Englischunterrichts, Praxis 1/1967, S 23-32.
ders. Situationen als Sprachanlässe im elementaren Englischunterricht, Praxis 2/1971, S 133-143.
K.W. Müller, Was ist 'Situational Teaching?', Praxis 3/1971, S 229-239
20) H. Gutschow, Der Beitrag des brit. Kontextualismus zur Theorie und Praxis des Fremdsprachenunterrichts, Der fremdsprachliche Unterricht 6/1968, S 23-39.
21) R. Bergius, a.a.O. S 237 f.
22) Beispiele hierzu geben E. Roeske, a.a.O. S 71 ff.
H. Schrand, Meaningful drills, Das Sprachlabor 3/1968, S 91-94.
ders. Von mechanischen Drills zu kommunikativen Übungen. Der fremdsprachl. Unterricht 4/1968, S 38-46.
Helma Ott, Lebensechte Situationen im Sprachlabor, Das Sprachlabor 3/1968, S 81-87.
23) B.W. Beljajew, a.a.O. S 86.
24) E. Roeske, Probleme der Differenzierung in der Sprachlaborarbeit des engl. Anfangsunterrichts a.a.O. S 77 ff.

Zu einer effektiven Steuerung des Lernprozesses im Sprachlabor nicht aus, wir brauchen vielmehr eine möglichst genaue Beschreibung des Schülerverhaltens beim Erwerb der Zweitsprache, um dann die sich unterscheidenden Schülergruppen optimal fördern zu können.

Gezielte Versuche in unseren Sprachlabor haben übereinstimmend ergeben, dass bei Schülern unterschiedliche Lernleistungen auftreten, die bei der Planung von Laborübungen berücksichtigt werden müssen. So fand J. Kepler heraus, dass sowohl die obere als auch die untere Leistungsgruppe einer Gymnasialklasse bei einem Normalprogramm keinen Lernzuwachs erzielten, während die mittlere Leistungsgruppe durch den Laborunterricht so weit gefördert wurde, dass sich ihr Leistungsstand dem der Spitzengruppe anglich oder ihn sogar übertraf. [25] W. Bachmann konnte nachweisen, dass stark elementarisierte Laborprogramme die leistungsschwachen Schüler besser fördern als Normalprogramme mit durchschnittlichem Schwierigkeitsgrad. [26] Um die Gründe für diese unterschiedlichen Lerneffekte zu ermitteln, versuchten wir, die Reaktionen der einzelnen Schülergruppen auf Impulse verschiedenen Schwierigkeitsgrades festzustellen. An dem Versuch nahmen 110 Schüler der Klasse 6 des Gymnasium in Hofgeismar teil, die wir in drei verschiedene Leistungsgruppen (A,B + C) einteilten. Ohne den gesamten Versuch beschreiben zu können, wollen wir in einer Übersicht die Ergebnisse schematisch darstellen, die uns zur Bestimmung des Medienverbundes als wichtig erscheinen.

	Gruppe A Note 1 u. 2 N=18	Gruppe B Note 3 N=52	Gruppe C Note 4 u. 5 N=40
Hörverstehen	einmaliges Vorlesen der Anweisungen genügt; zweimaliges Vorlesen wird als langweilig empfunden	zweimaliges Vorlesen aller Anweisungen ist erforderl.	Anweisungen werden nach zweimaliger Wiederholung oft noch falsch verstanden. Muttersprachl. Einhilfen sind erforderlich.
Kurzzeitgedächtnis	längere Geschehensabläufe werden gut behalten	Schwierigkeiten treten beim Behalten von Sequenzen von mehr als drei Sätzen auf.	Mehr als zwei kurze Sätze innerhalb einer Situation können nicht behalten werden.

25) J. Kepler, Klassen - und Laborunterricht in Klasse 6 und 7, ein Vergleich. Unveröffentlichte pädagogische Prüfungsarbeit, Kassel 1966, S 34-37 und 44 f.
26) W. Bachman, Versuch einer empirischen Ermittlung und Erprobung von Kriterien zur Gestaltung von differenzierten audio-lingualen Sprachlaborprogrammen für leistungsschwächere Schüler, Unveröffentlichte pädag. Prüfungsarbeit, 1973 Kassel, S 33 und S 38 f.

	Gruppe A Note 1 u. 2 N=18	Gruppe B Note 3 N=52	Gruppe C Note 4 u. 5 N=40
Bildimpulse	Für Dekodierung einfacher sprachl. Impulse überflüssig. Nur bei längeren Situationsabläufen nötig. Neigung zur Abwertung der Bilder	Hilfe bei Dekodierung aller Sprachimpulse. Gute Motivationsförderung.	Grosse Hilfe für Verständniserhellung von Sprachmustern. Sehr gute Motivations- und Leistungsförderung, selbst bei einfache Übungen.
pattern drill	zu einfach, beim 1. Durchgang 90% richtige Antworten; wird als monoton empfunden.	adäquate Übungsform, beim 1. Durchgang 60%, beim 2. 90% richtige Antworten; Befriedigung über Erfolg.	Dekodierungsschwierigkeiten mindern Lernerfolg. Nur kurze patterns geeignet. Bei einmaliger Wiederholung kein Lernzuwachs. Mehrmaliges Üben unbedingt erforderlich.
Transformationsübung	adäquate Übungsform, nach zweimaliger Wiederholung sind 90% aller Antworten richtig.	schwierige Übung, nach mehrmaligem Üben kann Lernzuwachs bis auf 80% richtiger Antworten erhöht werden.	sehr schwere Übung viele grammatische Fehler, häufige Interferenzen. Lernzuwachs nur bei einfachen Übungen nach mehrmaligem Wiederholen möglich.
Situationsübungen	gute Verstehens- und Reaktionsleistungen, Interesse an spannenden Geschehensabläufen und an Rollenübernahme.	Schwierigkeiten beim Verstehen der Situationen, visuelle Impulse bedeuten grosse Hilfe; mehrmaliges Üben erforderlich.	grosse Schwierigkeiten beim Erfassen der Situationen, falsche sprachl. Reaktionen, Frustrationen.
Transfer	sehr gute Transferleistung	Transfer von Regeln fällt schwer.	identische Elemente gut, Transfer v. Regeln sehr schwer.

Aus diesen Beobachtungen, die weiterer empirischer Feinanalysen bedürfen, ergeben sich für die Bestimmung des didaktischen Ortes des Arbeitsprojektors im Sprachlabor drei Folgerungen.

1. Um einen optimalen Lernerfolg zu erzielen, sollten Sprachlaborübungen nicht nur nach Sprach-und Lerntheorien konzipiert werden, sondern sie müssen sich auch nach den Lernerfordernissen der Schüler richten.[27]

2. Zur Vermeidung von Lernstörungen (z.B. mangelnde Konzentration durch Unterforderung und Frustration durch Überforderung) sollten die Übungen den unterschiedlichen Schülerleistungen im Hörverstehen, dem Kurzzeitgedächtnis und den Tranferleistungen angepasst sein. Hieraus ergeben sich folgende Empfehlungen für die Praxis: Je leistungsschwächer eine Gruppe ist, umso mehr müssen die Übungen elementarisiert (kurze einfache Sätze, Einbau eines Segmentes in eine Struktur, kleinschrittige Transformationen und kurze konkrete Situationen), öfter wiederholt und stärker visuell untermauert werden. Die leistungsstärkeren Schüler erhalten eine bessere Förderung durch Transformations-und Situationsübungen, während stark elementarisierte behavioristische Übungssequenzen ohne Erfolg bleiben.

3. Visuelle Impulse sind bei allen Leistungsgruppen dann wichtig, wenn Decodierungsschwierigkeiten auftreten. Bei den schwachen Schülern wirken sie sich bei allen Übungen motivations-und leistungsfördernd aus, während die Spitzengruppe sie nur bei situativen Abläufen benötigt.

Es ist sicherlich nicht berechtigt bei einer so kleinen Testpopulation verallgemeinernde Schlussfolgerungen zu ziehen, doch entsprechen unsere Ergebnisse langjährigen Beobachtungen so dass wir die Einteilung der Schüler in drei gymnasiale Leistungsgruppen als ein vorläufiges Orientierungsraster ansehen dürfen.

Elfriede Roeskes Differenzierungsvorschläge in sieben Leistungsgruppen für eine Jahrgangsbreite (1 Gruppe für das Gymnasium, 2 Real- und 4 Hauptschulgruppen)[28], die sie aufgrund ihrer Untersuchungen in der Real-und Hauptschule unterbreitet, würden sich nach unseren Beobachtungen um 2 Gymnasialgruppen erweitern. Da es allerdings bei dem traditionellen Schulsystem mit Sicherheit Überschneidungen der Leistungsgruppen in den einzelnen Schularten gibt, müssten gezielte Untersuchungen in Gesamtschulen zeigen, wie gross die Anzahl relativ homogener arbeitsfähiger Leistungsgruppen tatsächlich ist.

Das Lernziel

Sämtliche Faktoren im Regelkreis des Interdependenzsystems zur Bestimmung des Medienverbundes von Arbeitsprojektor und Sprachlabor erhalten ihren Stellenwert durch das Lernziel.

27) vgl. G. Zimmermann, Personale Faktoren und Fremdsprachencurriculum. Praxis 1/1973,S.3-14

28) E Roeske, a.a.O.S.84

wenn kommunikative Kompetenz als oberstes Ziel des fremdsprachlichen Unterrichts angesehen wird, dann setzt sich diese Fähigkeit wiederum aus einer Reihe von Teillernzielen zusammen, die nach unseren Beobachtungen besonders bei leistungsschwachen Schülern isoliert voneinander eingeübt werden sollten. Um eine kommunikative Kompetenz im Sprachlabor zu erreichen ist u.E. eine methodische Differenzierung vom pattern drill über Transformationen bis hin zu den komplexeren situativen Übungen angebracht.

Gerade der Medienverbund im Sprachlabor bietet die Möglichkeit, Übungen nach den Teillernzielen und den unterschiedlichen Lernleistungen der Schüler genau zu planen. Bei allen Übungen ist stets zu beachten, dass die Prinzipien der Sprachtheorien, die Erkenntnisse der Lernpsychologie und das Schülerverhalten im Rahmen der technischen Möglichkeiten des Labors in einem Interdependenzzusammenhang stehen, der den Programmherstellern als Groborientierung dienen sollte, denen der Lehrer aber nach seiner Einsicht in die funktionalen Zusammenhänge des Lernprozesses im Sinne seines Lernzieles steuern muss.

Testen im Sprachlabor

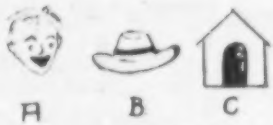
Da die Schüler erfahrungsgemäss ihre eigenen Fehler oft nicht hören und sie in der 4. Phase sogar wiederholen [29], besteht im Sprachlabor die Notwendigkeit Testphasen einzubauen, die dem Schüler eine möglichst objektive Gewissheit für die Richtigkeit seiner Leistungen geben. Auch hierfür eignet sich ein Medienverbund von Sprachlabor und Arbeitsprojektor. Im folgenden wollen wir einige Beispiele für verschiedene Testmöglichkeiten geben, ohne jedoch Anspruch auf Vollständigkeit erheben zu können. [30]

1. Lautdiskrimination:

Bilder erscheinen nacheinander an der Projektionswand mit je einem Buchstaben. Die Schüler erhalten die Aufforderung, das zu dem akustischen Impuls passende Bild auszuwählen und den entsprechenden Buchstaben in das Heft zu schreiben.

Beispiel

Akustischer Impuls: - This is a hat



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29) H. Ott, Lebensechte Situationen im Sprachlabor? a.a.O. S. 82

30) E. Stack, a.a.O. S. 193 ff.
R.M. Valette, Tests im Fremdsprachenunterricht, Berlin: Cornelsen, 1971.
A.R. Glaap, Zur Konstruktion von Tests und Testarbeiten Neusprachl. Mitteilungen 4/1971, S. 212-220

Richtige Antwort: B

2. Hör-verstehenstest

Ein Bild wird projiziert, die Schüler müssen entscheiden, ob der akustische Impuls richtig oder falsch ist. Für einen richtigen Impuls schreiben sie a), für einen falschen b) in ihr Heft.

Beispiel:

There is a house in the picture.
It is red.
It has two chimneys.
A girl is looking out of the window.

3. Situative Einordnung:

Im Labor wird eine Situation akustisch vermittelt und die Distraktoren projiziert.

Beispiel:

'What would you like,madam?'
'I'd like a cup of tea and a piece of cake,please.'
'Thank you,madam.'
The lady is probably sitting in .....
Projektion: A. a bus
B. a concert
C. a restaurant

Richtige Antwort: C.

4. Wortschatztests:

Um den Wortschatz zu testen, ergeben sich durch den Einsatz des Arbeitsprojektors eine Fülle von Möglichkeiten. Bei Einsatzübungen werden Sätze mit Bildern projiziert und die Schüler setzen dann entweder akustisch oder schriftlich das fehlende Wort ein. Die Bestätigung der richtigen Antwort kann ebenfalls visuell oder durch ein Schriftbild erfolgen.

Beispiel:

This is a

Bei einer anderen Einsatzübung werden die unvollständigen Sätze visuell und die Distraktoren akustisch vermittelt. Die Schüler schreiben die richtige Antwort in ihr Heft, die Bestätigung erfolgt durch eine Zusatzfolie mit der die unvollständigen Sätze ergänzt werden.

Beispiel: Projektion:

Peter ... a new Bicycle from his father

Akustische Stimuli: A becomes

B gets

C gives

Richtige Antwort: B

c) Grammatiktest:

Bei den höheren Altersstufen treten die Bildimpulse stärker zugunsten des visuell übermittelten Schriftbildes zurück. Konstituenten oder Satzsätze werden projiziert und mit entsprechenden Nummern versehen. Die Schüler ordnen aufgrund ihres Regelwissens die akustisch übermittelten Signale den Sätzen zu und schreiben die Lösungsnummern auf.

Beispiel:

Projektion:	I have been learning English	1
	She went home	2
	him to go home	3
	her doing her homework	4
Akustische Stimuli:		Lösungen
	Mother wants ...	3
	Five minutes ago ...	2
	For ten years ...	1
	Father doesn't mind ...	4

Zusammenfassung

Zur Erweiterung der Übungsmöglichkeiten im Sprachlabor haben wir den didaktischen Ort des Arbeitsprojektors zu bestimmen versucht indem wir die nach unserer Erfahrung didaktisch relevanten Aussagen der wichtigsten Sprach-und Lerntheorien in Beziehung setzten zu den Lerngruppen,dem Lernziel und den technischen Möglichkeiten eines Medienverbundes. Das Zusammenwirken dieser Faktoren versuchten wir in einem Interdependenzmodell zu beschreiben, aus dem wir für die Praxis folgende Ergebnisse ableiten:

1. Der Lernprozess im Labor zum Erwerb einer kommunikativen Kompetenz stellt einen komplexen Vorgang verschiedener, sich gegenseitig ergänzender Lernleistungen mit einem entsprechenden Transfer(identische Elemente, Regeln und Strukturen) im Zusammenwirken von Assoziation, Imitation, Einsicht in Zusammenhänge und Operation dar, die alle durch visuelle Impulse ergänzt, variiert und effektiver gestaltet werden können.

2. Die unterschiedlichen Fähigkeiten der Schüler im Hörverstehen, den Tranfer-und Gedächtnisleistungen und dem Strukturverständnis erfordern im Sprachlabor eine Differenzierung der Klassen in möglichst homogene Leistungsgruppen, um einen optimalen Lerneffekt für alle Schüler zu erzielen.

3. Die Sprachlaborprogramme sollten daher den unterschiedlichen Lernleistungen der Schüler so angepasst sein, dass sie jeweils einen mittleren Schwierigkeitsgrad für die einzelnen Niveaugruppen enthalten.

Für schwächere Schüler ist eine weitgehende Elementarisierung mit visueller Unterstützung in Verbindung mit dem pattern drill in der Anfangsphase zu empfehlen, während die leistungsstarken Gruppen bei weitgehendem Verzicht auf pattern drills durch komplexere Lernleistungen von Situations-und Transformationsübungen einen höheren Lernzuwachs erreichen.

4. Die Motivation im Sprachlabor wird nach unserer Beobachtung immer dann erhöht, wenn folgende Voraussetzungen gegeben sind,sie vermindert sich, wenn sie fehlen.

4,1, Visuelle Impulse als Stimuli für sprachliche Reaktionen und Hilfen zur Erleichterung der Dekodierung akustisch übermittelter Informationen.

4,2, Variabilitat der Übungen.

4,3, Situationen, die der Alters-und Begabungsstufe entsprechen.

4,4, Bewertung des Lernerfolgs im Bezugssystem der Schule. (Lob,Verbesserung der Noten).

4,5, Tests,die dem Schüler eine objektive Bestätigung seiner Leistungen geben.

5. Der Einsatz des Arbeitsprojektors ermöglicht die Auflockerung der Sprachlaborarbeit durch Testphasen mit einer objektiven Bestätigung der Schulerleistung.

Das didaktische Modell gründet sich auf die Übertragung von lernpsychologischen und sprachtheoretischen Prinzipien, deren Auswirkungen wir durch Beobachtung der Praxis zu ermitteln versuchten. Dieser hermeneutische Ansatz bedarf allerdings weiterer empirischer Feinanalysen, damit man den Lernprozess durch grössere didaktische Präzission für alle Schüler effektiver zu gestalten vermag.

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Higher Education Projects

The following brief descriptions of work in progress at some English universities are taken from Newsletter No. 1 February 1969 of the Nuffield Foundation Group on Research and Innovation in Higher Education, Nuffield Lodge, Regents Park, London NW1.

Curriculum

Integrated European Studies

At Loughborough a new course has recently been initiated to cover the languages, politics and economics of Modern Europe. The course is based upon the Department of European Studies which provides teaching in languages and politics. Economics is taught by the Department of Economics. During the first year two modern languages are studied together with introductory courses in economics and political science and a general course on the evolution of contemporary Europe. In the second year, in addition to the main subjects, students examine in detail the politics of France and Germany. In the final year business economics is studied together with the workings of the Common Market and the political aspects of European integration since 1945. Although this is not a sandwich course, students are expected to spend time abroad during vacations.

Contact: Professor D. L. Coombes, Department of European Studies, Loughborough

Unit Courses in Arts Subjects

In 1964 the Classics Department at University College, London adopted the unit course degree structure - the first department in the Arts Faculty to do so (apart from Geography, which belongs also to the Faculty of Science, and was already offering its course-unit degree for both B.Sc. and B.A.). Two main reasons for making the change were the opportunities it created to spread the examinations (previously all taken in the student's third year) and to adopt more flexible degree programmes. Students now follow a university syllabus for some course units (special subjects, for instance, which are offered in the third year are still taught on an intercollegiate basis) and a college syllabus for others. Students share with their tutor the responsibility for deciding on their choice of course units. Although the system allows for many options, some basic courses in language and literature are obligatory. Tutors are concerned to ensure that each student's total course will be a reasonable and balanced one. Both staff and students report themselves as generally satisfied with the way the course unit structure has worked out, and agree that it provides more opportunity than a joint honours system for a broadly-based university education. Examination results have indicated little difference in the overall standards reached by students as compared with their performance under the old degree structure.

Contact: Professor E. W. Handley, Professor of Greek, University College London

2. Teaching Metods

Group Studies and Texts in Language Learning

Language courses are often defined largely in terms of the final examination papers, in which students are required to translate from and into the foreign language, to write proses, and to take an oral examination. A typical approach to teaching language in preparation for these examinations is through the weekly production and correction of translations and prose exercises. Final results and examiners' reports have indicated some deficiencies in this approach, and in particular the failure of a number of students to acquire either the necessary language skills or the ability to read and study literature critically.

To meet these snortcomings the Language Centre and the Department of French at Birkbeck College, London, have, since 1966, adopted a less conventional approach involving students actively in the learning process and concentrating on the development of an understanding of what language is and how it may be used. Each week, for three hours in the first year and one hour in the second year, students learn to understand and use the language by a direct and intensive study of spoken and written texts in French. The sessions are reinforced by small group discussions of fundamental questions related to the aims, objectives, methods and techniques of language learning. These small group studies and discussions, in which students share experience and understanding, are sometimes tape-recorded, transcribed and used as a basis for further discussion and course development. It is planned to make videotape recordings of small groups at work. Two teachers are usually present at each group session.

Since tne introduction of this alternative approach, the students' standards of performance in the language have improved significantly in relation botn to previous year groups at Birkbeck and to examination performance in London University as a whole.

Contact: Dr. M. Blanc or Mr. O. Uren, Department of Applied Linguistics, or Mrs. Madeleine Le Cunff, Department of French, Birkbeck College, London

3. Teaching and Learning Resources

Videotapes for Independent Learning

The use of videotape recordings at Brunel University has increased considerably over the past two or three years. There are now over 500 catalogued, which include Open University, BBC Further Education 'Off-Air' recordings, and programmes purchased from other universities in addition to Brunel's own productions. Coverage includes Biology, Biochemistry, Building Technology, Chemistry, Computer Science, Education, Engineering, Industrial Training, Languages, Law, Mathematics, Physics and the Social Sciences. The majority of these tapes are made available in the Library for independent use. Supplementary material is provided for a number of them, usually in the form of booklets

containing further explanation, questions and answers. The video tapes are stored and indexed along similar lines to the book collection. Users take them from the shelves and thread them on to open deck players in simply constructed booths. There are seven players in fairly constant use in the Library, including the latest Videocassette Recorders, at present. It is proposed to instal about 40 more when the new Library is completed later this year. There are in addition 22 playback machines on portable trollies available in the laboratories.

Contact: Mr. G.d. Noordhof, Director, Brunel University Television Service

4. Learning Skills

The Post A-Level Spanish (Palspan) Project

This co-operative project, based on the Department of Spanish, Queen Mary College, and the Language Centre, University of Essex was funded by the Department of Education and Science (on the recommendation of the Committee on Research and Development in Modern Languages). The aim of the three-year project (ending in 1972) was to widen the available range of language learning activities in undergraduate Spanish courses.

The Project team of two co-directors and three research assistants evolved and carried out a 3-stage working plan. The first stage was to devise a diagnostic test battery to help pinpoint the linguistic strengths and weaknesses of students entering advanced courses. The test battery was tried out in many co-operating Spanish Departments in universities and other institutions, and revised and re-tested before the final format was published. Copies, under the title 'Spanish Proficiency Test Battery', are now available from the Materials Development Unit, Micklegate House, Micklegate, York YO1 1JZ. The second stage was the construction, on the basis of the findings in the first stage, of appropriate remedial teaching materials in preparation for stage three. The task in this final stage was to provide a range of linguistic activities aimed to take the student beyond conventional grammatical exercises to the point where he or she can become sensitive to stylistic, contextual and regional varieties of the Spanish language. The book resulting from this work will be published by the Longman Group during 1973/74 in the form of eleven thematic units, each containing texts from a variety of sources all over the Spanish-speaking world. Each text will have accompanying exercise material and each unit will have a parallel tape of approximately twenty minutes in length.

Contact: the Co-Directors of the Project, Miss L. Ingamelis, Spanish Department, Queen Mary College, University of London, or Mr. P. Standish, French Department, University of Stirling.

German for Chemistry Students

At the University of Nottingham, staff from the Department of Chemistry and from the Language Centre are preparing a course in German for chemistry students. The research project, which is supported by the Office for Scientific and Technical Information, seeks to impart techniques of sentence analysis and information retrieval which will lead to quicker comprehension of meaning and facilitate the translation of key sections, where necessary. In order to prepare the course material an analysis, both manual and by computer, of chemical German has been made. The course consists of 9 hours in the language laboratory and about 16 hours of written consolidation. In addition to the language laboratory version the course will be produced in a form suitable for selfinstruction.

Contact: Dr. A. F. A. Dove, Department of Chemistry or Mr. W. Grauberg, Director, Language Centre, University of Nottingham.

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